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ABSTRACT

This report outlines the symposium held on the teaching and learning of the mother tongue and of other modern languages. The aims were: (1) to examine the general connections between the teaching and learning of the mother tongue and of other modern languages in mono-, bi-, and multilingual communities in Europe; (2) to consider the bearing of modern theoretical and applied linguistics on these problems; (3) to suggest means of improving the coordination of the teaching and study of the mother tongue with the teaching and study of other modern languages in teacher training and in schools; and (4) to make recommendations for appropriate action on the part of the Council of Europe and of the member States of the Council for Cultural Cooperation. Included are summaries of the addresses, statements, and lectures; a summary of plenary discussions; group reports; and the conclusions and recommendations of the symposium. (Author/HW)

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COMMITTEE FOR GENERAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Symposium on

"The connection between the teaching and learning of the mother tongue and the teaching and learning of other modern languages"

Turku (Finland), 11 - 16 December 1972

REPORT

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
1.	PREFACE	1
2.	THE PROGRAMME OF THE SYMPOSIUM	
	SUMMARIES OF ADDRESSES, STATEMENTS AND LECTURES	3
	Monday, 11 December	3
	Tuesday, 12 December	10
	Wednesday, 13 December	13
	Thursday, 14 December	16
	Friday, 15 December	19
	Saturday, 16 December	22
3.	SUMMARY OF PLENARY DISCUSSIONS	23
4.	GROUP REPORTS	29
	Report of Group A	29
	Report of Group B	31
	Report of Group C	36
5.	CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE SYMPOSIUM.	39
	A. Connection between teaching the mother tongue and teaching other languages	39
	B. Language teaching materials	40
	C. Linguistic minorities; mother tongue teaching	40
	D. Contacts between linguists and teachers	41
	E. Qualifications in general linguistics	42
	F. Information	42

APPENDICES:

I.	WORKING PAPER based on replies to questionnaire DECS/EGT (72) 37 Revised	43
II.	LIST OF PARTICIPANTS	- i -

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THE CONNECTION BETWEEN THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF THE MOTHER TONGUE AND THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF OTHER MODERN LANGUAGES

1. PREFACE

(a) This Symposium was a follow-up of several previous symposia on language teaching and learning. Its subject had often been referred to previously but had never been seriously tackled.

(b) The Symposium was organised jointly by the Council for Cultural Co-operation of the Council of Europe and the Finnish Ministry of Education. The Finnish Organising Committee worked under the chairmanship of Mr. Nils Erik ENKVIST. The Symposium was held at the Administration Building of the University of Turku.

(c) A preparatory meeting of the Symposium was held in Strasbourg, 8 - 9 June 1972, comprising Mr. Sven NORD of the Council of Europe (as Chairman), Mr. J.-P. LAGARDE of Nancy, Mr. G. NICKEL of Stuttgart, Mr. D. RIDDY of London, Mr. E. ROULET of Neuchatel, Mr. O. SAMPOLA of Helsinki, Mr. N. E. ENKVIST of Turku, and Mr. A. NYGÅRD of Turku. A number of adjustments of the draft programme were made. It was decided that three working parties should be formed: one English-speaking, one French-speaking and one bilingual. Mr. Enkvist agreed to be the Chairman of the Symposium. Mr. Nygård had previously agreed to undertake the task as General Rapporteur.

(d) The aims of the Symposium were given the following wording:

(i) to examine the general connections between the teaching and learning of the mother tongue and of other modern languages in mono-, bi-, and multilingual communities in Europe;

(ii) to consider the hearing of modern theoretical and applied linguistics on these problems;

(iii) to suggest means of improving the co-ordination of the teaching and study of the mother tongue with the teaching and study of other modern languages in teacher training and in schools;

(iv) to make recommendations for appropriate action on the part of the Council of Europe and of the member States of the Council for Cultural Co-operation.

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(e) There were thirty-six delegates present from nineteen member countries. Also present were a number of observers (from Norway, Yugoslavia and Finland). The names of the participants will be found in Appendix II.

(f) An exhibition of books and materials was on display in the foyer outside the conference room. The items in the exhibition had been supplied by the delegates in attendance at the Symposium and by the Organising Committee.

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2. THE PROGRAMME OF THE SYMPOSIUM :

SUMMARIES OF ADDRESSES, STATEMENTS AND LECTURES

Monday, 11 December

9.30 Opening ceremony

(a) Formal opening address by the Finnish Minister of Education, Mr. Ulf SUNDQVIST (summary):

"On behalf of the Government of Finland, I have the pleasure to welcome you to Finland and to this Symposium which the Finnish Ministry of Education is organising in co-operation with the Council for Cultural Co-operation.

Inequality in society should be analysed against the social structure and mechanisms maintaining and creating it. The position of minority groups, for example linguistic minorities, is particularly difficult. Abolition of social inequality should be the main political aim in the 1970s.

There are about 300,000 persons in Finland speaking Swedish as their mother tongue. Officially, the Swedish language has an equal status with the Finnish language. In 1971, a State committee submitted a report in which the present linguistic situation in Finland was analysed. Altogether 70 proposals were made as to how the problems should be solved. They concerned all sections of society, including one on securing the position of Finnish speaking minorities in Swedish communities.

There are some 4,000 Lapps in Finland. The question of the Lappish language is at the same time a question of the culture of the Lapps: how can the characteristics of the enriching Samic culture be preserved? Improvements are under way. The planning of Lappish school material has been initiated.

Finland is a country which provides migrant workers. At present, there are over 200,000 Finnish citizens in Sweden. Finland has given away young, active and, in many cases, skilled manpower to Sweden.

A particularly topical problem is the education in Sweden of the 60,000 Finnish children at school age. Even if the migration would cease, the number of Finnish children in Sweden will double in the next ten years. The future does not appear bright for Finnish children in Sweden unless strong measures for improving their educational situation are taken.

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The Swedish Government lately promised a Bill which will guarantee 240 hours of Swedish language instruction during paid working time, and paid language instruction will also be extended to immigrants who do not belong to the labour force. These and other improvements will no doubt help the situation of migrants and their adjustment in Swedish society.

This Symposium will concentrate on the questions of teaching and learning languages, the mother tongue as well as other modern languages. While dealing with these questions we must not forget the social and sociological aspects of language. I hope that the Symposium will make recommendations which help member governments to organise the teaching and learning of languages so that, among other things, the needs of minority groups are taken into account."

(b) Address by Mr. Thordur SIGURDSSON of the Council of Europe (summary):

After expressing the gratitude of the Council of Europe to the Finnish Government for the hospitality offered to the members of the Symposium, Mr. Sigurdsson underlined the importance of the Symposium's theme, which had been suggested as a research priority at a Council of Europe Symposium in Ankara in 1971. The conclusions of the present Symposium would undoubtedly be carefully examined and enlarged upon in Wiesbaden, in November 1973, at a Symposium on "The early teaching of a foreign language", organised by the Federal Republic of Germany under the auspices of the Council of Europe.

"The Council for Cultural Co-operation is the intergovernmental organ which co-ordinates the Council of Europe's activities in matters of education and culture. Its function, among other things, is to bring the new ideas, the new techniques and new achievements of one member State to the attention of all and to facilitate their adaptation to the needs of other interested members; and to increase, by close organic co-operation, the educational and cultural potential of each country, to help governments to enable Europeans as far as possible to enjoy the training and environment needed for the constant renewal of creative genius.

The present Symposium forms part of the programme of the Committee for General and Technical Education. The Committee is composed of senior officials from the ministries of education who are responsible for general and technical education and for the training of teachers.

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The Committee is mainly concerned with the following fields:

- pre-school education and its connection with primary education;
- organisation and structure of education for the 16-19 age group (including technical and vocational education);
- curricula: adaptation of contents to new needs, with particular reference to interdisciplinary approaches;
- educational technology as applied in schools;
- educational evaluation and assessment."

10 a.m. Plenary session I

Statement on "The linguistic and educational situation of Finland" by Mr. Olli SAMPOLA (summary):

"Officially, Finland is a bilingual country. Although the language of an overwhelming majority of the people has always been Finnish, Swedish is recognised as the second national language. The Swedish-speaking Finns live mainly on the coastal areas of the South and West of Finland. In the very north of the country we find a tiny linguistic and ethnic group, the Lapps, whose language is distantly related to Finnish. Signs of acculturation with the Finnish-speaking majority are clearly visible today. Only recently have vigorous measures been taken to save the language and culture of the Lapps.

Finland's close relationship with the Scandinavian countries is reflected in the educational tradition and in the development of the Finnish school system. At the moment we find ourselves halfway between an old school system and a new one. The need for a thorough reform derives from the rapid social and technological changes characteristic of Finland today. Approximately 65% of the 16 year olds are studying in schools of upper secondary level. The number of university students has increased from 15,000 in 1950 to 60,000 in 1972.

Compulsory education requires eight years of full-time schooling, starting at the age of seven. This minimum can be fulfilled in the primary school, which comprises six classes of primary school proper and two or three classes of civic school.

At present no more than 40% of our children complete the primary school course. A steadily increasing number of eleven year olds leave after four years to change over to secondary school, despite the fact that their parents have to pay for this type of schooling.

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Pre-schools are not yet integrated into the public education system. Most kindergartens are located in urban areas and are maintained by the municipalities or by welfare organisations. There are plans for incorporating the pre-school with the regular educational system.

The new comprehensive school will abolish the present compartmentalisation of education at the early level of schooling. Broadly speaking, the new school aims at raising the average standard of public education to a level which is today attained in the middle school (= halfway through secondary school), as far as cognitive learning is concerned. Yet the aims of the education differ in several respects from those pursued in the old school tradition.

Two language courses apart from the pupil's mother tongue become part and parcel of the learning programme for all children. In most cases the languages to be taught are English and the second national language, Swedish or Finnish. Pupils who are successful in their language studies may start on a third language course in their eighth school year.

In some subjects of the upper cycle a structural differentiation will be resorted to. In the main foreign language course and in mathematics three courses of different scope are offered: a general course with fairly modest requirements, an intermediate course and an advanced course. It is up to the pupil and his parents to choose the appropriate course. The choice of course in any subject is independent of the level of course chosen in other subjects. Failure in choosing the appropriate course can be corrected in the course of studies. On the whole, the experimental comprehensive schools have proved that this system of differentiation is successful in practice.

One of the guiding principles of the new school is pupil-centred learning. Pupils are encouraged to work independently, to criticise and to express their opinions. Special attention is paid to the development of their creative talents. Group work is favoured as a means of social education.

The education reform presupposes a new orientation in the training of teachers. All teacher training for the new system will take place on an academic level, in university departments and in training schools attached to them. This applies to class teachers and subject teachers alike, at every level of primary and secondary education."

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11.30 a.m. Plenary session II

(a) Statement on "The work of the Council of Europe in the field of modern languages" by Mr. D.C. RIDDY (summary):

"From the very beginning, questions of language learning and language teaching have occupied a central place in the work of the Council of Europe. The general aim and purpose of the teaching of modern languages was given a precise definition in the resolutions adopted in Hamburg (1961) and Rome (1962). Greater importance than ever before was to be attributed to increasing the knowledge of modern languages, because such knowledge was considered indispensable both for the individual and for Europe as a whole: international co-operation and the safe-guarding of the common heritage depended on it.

In 1967 the Council for Cultural Co-operation launched its Major Project - Modern Languages. In 1968, having reviewed the progress made under the Project, the CCC felt able to recommend an Intensified Programme for Modern Language Teaching.

By its very nature the Council can take no direct action of its own to promote modern language teaching in the schools, colleges and universities of the member States. It has to operate through member governments or through unofficial agencies.

The two symposia arranged in 1966 turned out to be important. The first, held in Ostia, formulated a European statement on the aims of modern language courses in secondary schools. The second, held in Ankara, was nominally concerned with textbooks, but delegates found that they must consider these aids to teaching in the larger modern context of teaching materials generally.

The Intensified Programme may be regarded as the latest statement of official policy on modern language teaching in Europe. It embraces action to extend and modernise the teaching of modern languages in schools (both primary and secondary), in universities and other institutions of higher learning, in the education of adults, and naturally in the initial and in-service training of teachers. It calls for research into all the factors affecting language acquisition, at all levels and with all categories of learner. It invites governments to nominate or create national centres specialising in such fields as the systematic collection and dissemination, to language teachers and others, of information on the findings of all research which has a bearing on the teaching of modern languages and then to examine whether any of these national centres can usefully take over responsibility for certain tasks of common European benefit. And finally, it invites non-governmental organisations, such as teacher associations, publishers, and producers of equipment to help in carrying out the programme."

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(b) Presentation by the General Rapporteur of the results of the enquiry undertaken by the CCC.

The text will be found in Appendix I.

2.30 p.m. Plenary session III

Lecture on "Bilingualism as a problem of educational psychology and its consequences for teaching programmes" by Mrs. Els OKSAAR (summary):

"Bilingualism as a research area is an interdisciplinary field. It covers linguistic, sociological, psychological and pedagogical aspects as well as political, juridical, geographical and cultural ones. The term bilingualism itself is highly homonymous. It does not only indicate the speech habits or characteristics of a person or of a group, but can also be the characteristics of a territory or a country. It is also necessary to distinguish between various types of individual bilingualism and between bilingual situations in which the languages function.

Various definitions of bilingualism have been suggested, but most of them are too vague or too abstract to be useful. This may partly explain why tests with 'bilingual' children show contradictory results as to the usefulness or injuriousness of bilingualism. Recent investigations and experiences seem to establish that early bilingualism is an advantage, not an intellectual handicap.

When dealing with interference between languages we must remember that it may occur both in the individual's linguistic competence and in his communicative competence. Communicative competence presupposes the mastering of various registers and subnorms by the speaker. Strictly speaking, then, one could maintain that there is no such thing as unilingual individuals. Similarly, contrastive analyses for the purpose of designing language teaching programmes must not limit themselves to the linguistic system but should simultaneously pay attention to speech events and speech acts.

It may be said that the bilingual acts as he were using a hypersystem of language, a verbal repertoire, which may include not only two or more languages but also dialects and codes. It is therefore likely that the strategy the foreign language learner will use is that of code switching.

Bilingualism is a problem in educational policy in Europe in several respects. Minority problems and the behaviour of bilingual minorities as well as bilingual education have yet to be discussed realistically.

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The young child learning a second language should ideally be involved in significant activities where this language is an unavoidable tool of access. Efficient teaching requires awareness of the possible interferences from the mother tongue, on the part of the teacher.

Teaching programmes have to combine the problems of what somebody learns with the question of how he learns it. Similarly, they must find a compromise between formal correctness and functional efficiency.

It is not bilingualism but rather the lack of it which is a severe problem among millions of adults in various European countries."

5 p.m. Reception of the Finnish Ministry of Education, at the Sibelius Museum.

7.30 p.m. Plenary session IV

Lecture on "Aspects of error evaluation and Grading" by Mr. Gerhard NICKEL (summary):

"There are several reasons for the growing interest in error analysis. First, error analysis is used as a means for verifying or falsifying certain findings of contrastive linguistics. Contrastive linguistics does not, of course, describe the only possible source of errors in language learning.

Secondly, error analysis can be seen in connection with the efforts to objectify measuring and grading of achievement in language learning.

Thirdly, the psychology of learning resorts to error analysis since it can explain some of the mysteries of language acquisition which neither grammar models nor cybernetic models have been able to explain. Errors are considered to be intralingual steps in the process of building up language matrices. Language learning is not, of course, linear but should be regarded as spiral.

Fourthly, curriculum studies have contributed to the growing interest in error analysis. The content of so-called reduced language courses could include regular error systems. Staging, sequencing and grading of language teaching material also rely to a certain extent on error analysis. Errors no doubt have a positive value from a diagnostic point of view and in this respect are sometimes of greater importance than correct forms used accidentally.

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Finally, historical linguistics is interested in certain types of errors, such as errors based on false analogy, which demonstrate historical stages within the development of a language. Interlingual and intralingual error must be distinguished between. The intralingual type is interesting in that it clearly demonstrates the impact of teaching on the learner's language competence.

The evaluation of error is of primary importance. It is here that objectified tests have to start. There is definitely a connection between certain types of errors. Translation and multiple choice tests direct the student's attention towards particular grammatical and lexical items. Free composition writing as well as oral conversation will probably reveal more interlingual errors than other types of testing.

The decision on which errors one should consider elementary and which non-elementary should be made by native speakers, who will very often judge more leniently than non-native speakers. Traditionally, grammatical errors are considered to be more serious than lexical errors, although communication is based primarily on lexical items. How the seriousness of grammatical errors should be judged constitutes a difficult problem, but intelligibility must certainly be one criterion."

Tuesday, 12 December

9.30 a.m. Plenary session V

Lecture on "Comments on the theoretical background of the teaching of the mother tongue in primary school" by Mrs. Helga SCHWENK (summary):

"The declared aim of the teaching of the mother tongue is to promote the child's linguistic ability. This presupposes that all children have linguistic ability and that this ability is subject to change and can be improved.

Up till now mother tongue teaching has failed because language has been treated as an independent object, cut off from its users. Language teaching has been a conscious procedure: children are taught certain rules of language, or they learn certain patterns, or they collect word-families and word-fields.

The natural linguistic development of the young child shows us that his command of language improves as the result of social interaction. Formal control is achieved through the meaningful use of language, and his main motivation derives from the social importance of the mother tongue. This ability

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is called communicative competence. In contrast with Chomsky's linguistic competence which is limited to the inner structure of language.

Mother tongue teaching, then, must provide the child with opportunities to acquire experience in the differentiated use of language, speaking and understanding. The only aspects that should be handled explicitly are those which the individual can consciously control and which can be applied in speaking. The material elements of language (vocabulary and grammar) should be made available and acquired implicitly. The teaching should proceed from social function to linguistic structure and not vice versa. The un- (or sub-) conscious functional knowledge of language as linguistic competence should be practised implicitly in communicative speaking. The 'intuitive' knowledge of language as a means of social communication should be be brought out explicitly, both with reference to the individual's own activity (speaking and writing) and with reference to the ways in which language is used in his environment (for instance, understanding advertising).

This will necessitate a reorganisation of the training of teachers so that the main emphasis falls on the social aspect of language."

11.30 a.m. Plenary session VI

Lecture on "Language and Creativity" by Mr. Henri ADAMCZEWSKI (summary):

"The role of the mother tongue in teaching and learning a foreign language has been the source of controversial methodological quarrels for quite some time. At times the mother tongue has been regarded as the foundation on which the foreign language must be built, and at times all contact with the mother tongue has been banished from foreign language learning. Thanks to the rapid development of the linguistic sciences we are today, however, far better equipped to discuss these problems.

I shall start out from the following proposition: the mother tongue can and should play a capital role in the learning of a second language, because it is through the mother tongue that we come into possession of language. Mother tongue teaching should therefore concentrate on language from the outset, not just in order for the children to master the mother tongue itself better, but also to lay the foundation for a rational acquisition of other languages.

To know a language means among other things to be able to produce new utterances and to be able to understand utterances that one has not perhaps heard before. The spontaneous creativity in the mother tongue is based on an unconscious internal grammar which each of us carries in him.

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Learning the mother tongue cannot be explained simply as an imitation process, but should rather be thought of as a recreation, a reconstruction of the grammar of the language. It is only against this background - that the child possesses an innate predisposition for human language - that we can understand how the child is able to learn a complex linguistic system so rapidly.

But if the child has this innate capacity for learning language - why is it then that learning a foreign language should be so laborious? There are several answers to this. First that there is an age limit after which language learning becomes considerably more onerous. Second, that the means and methods applied to language teaching are far from adequate. Third, and most important, that mother tongue teaching has done very little to lead the pupil to insight into the nature and function of language, i.e. it has not been possible to profit from the fact that the child already possesses one language. However, it is evident that we cannot learn a second language in precisely the same way as we learnt the first.

The present mother tongue teaching from the elementary level on can be briefly described as: to learn to read and write. No attention is paid to the closer study of the grammar and function of spoken language. The linguistic knowledge of the pupil is restricted to twenty odd learned concepts and a handful of more or less insignificant rules. The main reason for this sad state of affairs lies in the training of teachers. It is absolutely necessary to train mother tongue teachers so that they get acquainted with the problems of language, of grammar and of phonetics.

Similarly, we might be able to improve many of the deficiencies of foreign language teaching through a more efficient training and a continuous in-service training of teachers, particularly in the linguistic sciences.

That linguistic knowledge which teachers possess tends to over-emphasise the purely informational level at the expense of the modality level; in other words, it is based on a linear conception of language. One could even maintain that such grammars as atomise the grammatical phenomena into isolated details contribute to blocking creativity.

There is no doubt that a solid contribution by linguistic research will be needed before we can formulate a linguistic theory of application which would provide the teacher with the required solutions to his problems.

Although structural language teaching, inspired by behaviourism, was quite unsatisfactory in many respects, it nevertheless gave the teacher the opportunity to base his pedagogic aims and strategies on something more solid than

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intuition and personal taste. The one-sided structuralist analysis of surface phenomena has been superseded by the transformational-generative model which emphasises the importance of the deep structure. Grammar has become an intricate network of abstract relations which aims at accounting for all possible phrases in a language. The so-called recursive rules explain one relevant aspect of creativity, while the dichotomy competence/performance defines the limits of our creative ability. One serious drawback of the transformational theory is its mobility - effective application of the developments of the theory would presuppose continuous further training of teachers as well as the existence of working teams to try out the findings of linguistics and psycholinguistics.

Another theory of language production, put forward by Calioli, places the Ego with its modalisations in the centre of the linguistic activity. The surface product is nothing but the observable final result of a series of operations during which the speaker leaves his personal mark on the information which the listener receives. It appears that the creativity level of the speaking Ego must be of considerable importance."

2.30 p.m. Group work, session I.

Wednesday, 13 December

8.30 a.m. Excursions and sightseeing

Participants were offered a choice of three tours. Tour I consisted of a visit to an experimental comprehensive school at Lieto (10 Km east of Turku) and a visit to a Swedish secondary school in Turku. Tour II consisted of a visit to a new Finnish secondary school and to a primary school, both in Turku. Tour III provided sightseeing in Turku, including visits to the Cathedral and to an art museum. All tours ended at the Old Castle of Turku which was then shown to the whole group.

12.30 p.m. Reception of the City of Turku at the Old Castle.

3 p.m. Plenary session VII

(a) Case study on "The education of the children of Finnish immigrant workers in Sweden" by Mr. P. TOUKOMAA (summary):

"It is quite common that Finnish children who have lived in Sweden for some time and who may appear to be fluent in spoken Swedish, are not able to understand matters

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outside the scope of everyday life, when they are explained in Swedish at school. This so-called neo-analphabetism is becoming a serious social problem among second generation immigrants.

The main reasons for this situation are, on the one hand, that the number of Finnish pupils has gone up enormously during the last few years (the majority of them are still in the lower grades) and, on the other hand, that immigrants are often housed in separate residential areas where opportunities for contacts with Swedes are minimised.

These pupils should be given 'prop'-teaching which would provide training in the more abstract use of language and thus make Swedish a more flexible linguistic tool for them than their present concrete everyday vocabulary does.

Many immigrant children never learn their mother tongue properly. The parents' work is generally hard, and often both parents work in shifts so that no time nor energy is left for developing the language of their children. Moreover, as parents are often ignorant of the significance of the mother tongue, it should be the duty of the educational authorities to inform them. It seems evident that these children need mother tongue instruction and training from pre-school age onwards. In the present situation many immigrant children suffer irreparable losses in their whole linguistic apparatus."

(b) Case study on "The situation of the Finnish-Swedes" by Mr. Tom SANDLUND (summary):

"This report will offer some information on the situation of the Swedish-speaking minority in Finland and on the sources for the strength and weaknesses of the Swedish language in this country, by providing background information as well as empirical data concerning the Swedish population, the language conflict, language maintenance and loyalties, and bilingualism in Finland.

One source for the strength of the Swedish language has been the fact that the Swedish population is geographically situated in two rather homogeneous areas.

Another source is historical-institutional: up to the 19th century Finland was part of Sweden, and Swedish the official language. The Finnish nationalist movement in the first decades of this century presumably brought to the fore a nationalism among the Swedes who managed to build strongholds and safeguards for their language.

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One further supporting factor is Finland's proximity to a wider Nordic-speaking area. The support for the Swedish language in Finland from Sweden is hard to estimate. The nearness to Sweden has, however, led to an emigration of Finnish-Swedes to Sweden. This, together with a lower birth-rate and the process of Finnicisation, has been the main weakness of the Swedish population.

It is interesting to note that the Swedish population today differs socio-economically very little from the Finnish population, but that the comparatively strong Finnicisation of Swedish working class families in the big cities results in larger middle strata percentagewise among the Swedes than among the Finns.

An investigation of the attitudes of the Finnish-Swedes to their future and to language conflict, carried out in three towns, showed that Helsinki was the most optimistic, Turku the most resigned, and Vaasa the most pessimistic one.

Finnicisation is of two kinds, shift in language usage and shift in language identity. Shift in language group identity is rare. In a study, people were asked with which group they identify themselves. The alternatives were Swedish, Finnish, "both" and "neither". None of the 5,000 respondents chose "neither" but up to 8% chose "both".

Surprisingly little work on bilingualism has been done in Finland. Partly, this is explained by the shortage of centrally collected data on the subject."

(c) Case study on "The current state and the future of the Lapps" by Mrs. Helvi NUORGAM-POUTASUO (summary):

"The Lapps are not an ethnically nor linguistically uniform group: there is no homogeneous Lappish culture. Linguistically, the whole Lappish area is divided into nine different languages or dialects, but some four-fifths of the Lapps speak Fjeld Lappish or Norwegian Lappish.

The problems faced by the Lapps are more or less the same in all the Nordic countries: economic, social and cultural. Basically, the crisis of the Lappish culture and the Lappish people is caused by the head-on collision of two different cultures. The culture of the majority population is based on the possession of a relatively small area and on a living earned by tilling that area. The Lappish way of living needed no private ownership: the large areas have always been common property of the family and the village.

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In the school system Lappish does not have the same position as Finnish or Swedish. In all the schools in the Lappish area, Finnish is used as the language of instruction, although many Lappish children come to school with Lappish as their only language and many others barely know a minimum of Finnish.

Many pupils who only speak Lappish or who know very little Finnish do not make the same progress as the Finnish pupils, who naturally receive their instruction in their mother tongue, and therefore Lappish children often become under-achievers. In this respect the Finnish school system oppresses the Lapps.

The number of Lappish textbooks is comparatively low, and there is a definite need for Lappish school material at different levels, as well as a need for Finnish course books for pupils who speak Lappish as their native language. One way of rapidly increasing the bulk of Lappish materials in the school in Finland would be to use books published in Norway and Sweden. Unfortunately, the Finnish Lapps do not use the same orthography as the other Nordic Lapps.

In 1970 the Ministry of Education appointed a committee to study the shortcomings and drawbacks of the schooling of the Lapps. The Committee came to the conclusion that it is necessary for Lappish children to learn both their native language and Finnish at school. In practice, Lappish should be used more extensively in instruction and Finnish would be taught according to a special programme. Moreover, Lappish would be studied at all levels, Lappish educational materials would be developed, and the teachers of those areas would receive complementary training."

Thursday, 14 December

9.30 a.m. Plenary session IX

Lecture on "Different grammar models and their possible effect on the teaching of the mother tongue and that of other modern languages" by Mr. Edy ROULET (summary):

"Traditional grammar is characterised by a principally analytic presentation of linguistic phenomena. At the most, it can help the pupil to understand the structure of a given phrase, but it can do little to help him construct new phrases.

Structural linguistics emphasised the syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships of the linguistic units and at the same time rejected word-by-word translation and the strong accent on the written language. But it also reveals serious deficiencies which have had a negative effect on language teaching. It provides, for instance, rules for the analysis but not for the production of forms and constructions, it attaches disproportionally much attention to facts of

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secondary importance, but fails to point to relevant generalisations, and finally, it only describes the surface structure of the phrases, which is not sufficient to account for the most essential linguistic facts.

Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar brought improvement on these points in its search for explicitness and abstraction. Unfortunately, the introduction of abstract units and of a metalanguage to describe linguistic facts also resulted in a further divergence of linguistic theory from those who would apply it - the teachers. The transformational theory has, however, done much to increase both the teachers' and the pupils' understanding of the function of linguistic systems in general and of the system being studied in particular.

The purpose of the instruction in a living language is to teach the individual to communicate with other individuals in the various situations of everyday life. Three conditions must be met if this aim is to be realised. First, it is not enough just to be able to understand and construct grammatical phrases. It is also necessary to know how these phrases are used in linguistic and in non-linguistic contexts.

Second, linguistic communication does not only have a referential function but also - and these may even dominate - an expressive, a connative, and a phatic function. All these functions must be considered when an individual learns to use a language as an instrument of communication.

Third, it is necessary to realise that communication in a linguistic community does not work with the aid of a pure, homogeneous, monolithic language. Every language comprises a number of simultaneous systems, each of which is characterised by its specific function.

Unfortunately, it must be admitted that none of the linguistic theories and descriptions currently applied in teaching living languages can supply information of the above-mentioned kind. The structuralists contributed with more accurate descriptions, but they contained no information on the use of the various structures in communication situations, nor on the ways in which the phrases could be combined into larger units, texts and dialogues. Transformational grammar also remains a phrase grammar, a system grammar. Linguistic competence is defined as the restricted ability to construct grammatical phrases, regardless of the ability to use them in the appropriate communication situations.

One must presumably conclude that a true pedagogic grammar has to be based on the pragmatic aspect of language use. Language teaching must place communication with its diverse semiotic acts and their realisations in the foreground. Grammars would also have to account for those factors which depend on the participants in the communication act - the speaker and the receiver. Finally, a pedagogic grammar must contain rules for combining phrases to larger units and in conversation. ./.

The traditional school grammars all used the same frame of reference, the same terminology, often the same type of exercises. Moreover, word-by-word translation was a common linguistic activity. All this meant that traditional grammar supplied mother tongue teaching and foreign language teaching with numerous identical features. The structuralists, on the other hand, insisted on the necessity to study each language completely separately, to avoid every source of interference. In the present situation, where structural grammar dominates the teaching of modern foreign languages whereas the Greco-Latin grammar forms the basis for mother tongue and Latin teaching, the pupils are given no possibility whatsoever to form any kind of global conception of the structure and function of language.

Transformational grammar rightly stresses those features which are common to all languages, such as substantial and formal universals. It sees the mother tongue as a potential and valuable aid to the teaching of foreign languages. This, however, presupposes that mother tongue teaching, from being one-sidedly normative, makes the study and discovery of the general function and structure of language its primary aim. Thus the pupil will obtain knowledge about linguistic categories and mechanisms which will later facilitate the learning of foreign languages.

If mother tongue teaching can at the same time improve the pupils' ability to use the language, as it points to the general principles that govern structures and functions in all languages, then we can be sure that it will both have a great educational value and constitute a precious aid to learning other languages."

11.30 a.m. Plenary session X

Lecture on "Explicit and implicit teaching of grammar" by Alvar ELLEGÅRD (summary):

"The experiments discussed below have been carried out at the University of Gothenburg, Sweden, in co-operation with the Gothenburg Teachers' College. The background of the experiments is as follows: during the last few decades there has been a strong belief among language teachers that:

- mastery of the spoken language is mainly achieved through practise in speaking the language;
- the teaching of grammar should be effected by practising points of grammar in structural situations, not by trying to explain the constructions;
- this also holds for the teaching of the vocabulary and phraseology of the language - it should be learnt in natural situations, not, for instance, by translation and explicit analysis of differences between the mother tongue and the foreign language.

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The aim of the experiments was to pitch against each other two different learning theories as applied to foreign language teaching: the cognitive code learning theory and the audio-lingual habit theory. The teaching strategies were called the explicit method and the implicit method respectively. The investigation was only concerned with the problem of learning such points of grammatical structure where the foreign language differs from the mother tongue. Vocabulary learning, pronunciation and fluency were outside the scope of the experiment. The tests were concerned with the practical mastery of the constructions taught rather than with theoretical points of explanations. The whole lesson sequence was pre-programmed and taped, and served by assistants whose sole duty was to operate the tape recorder, distribute work books, and switch on and off an overhead projector showing transparencies at prearranged points in the lesson.

The first two series of experiments did not show any significant differences between the two methods. It was assumed that the reason for this was the great similarity between the explicit and implicit materials. The explicit materials had in fact been identical with the implicit material except for the replacement of certain exercises with explanations.

In the third series the explicit and implicit lessons were constructed by different authors, with only vocabulary and aim identical. The results of the third series would indicate that adult learners benefit more from an explicit than from an implicit method of teaching, at least when the aim is to master grammatical structures in which the mother tongue differs from the foreign language. With a student population of 12-13 year olds there was no significant difference between the methods, although the results for the explicit group were indeed somewhat better than for the implicit group. Closer inspection of the results shows that the explicit method, as presented in this experiment, works better with average and good students.

More research is clearly needed to prove that the explicit method is in general inferior to the implicit method for under-achievers. These experiments have at least shown that teaching methods do matter, and that the search for interaction effects is by no means futile."

2.30 p.m. Group work, session II.

Friday, 15 December

9.30 a.m. Plenary session XI

Case report on "Language teaching and learning in Wales" by Prys E. OWEN (summary):

"During the religious revival of the 18th century, children and adults learned to read the Bible in Welsh, and although in the early 19th century there was a movement to decry the value

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of the Welsh language, there followed a revival of national consciousness which has resulted during this century in a policy of general encouragement to the Welsh language in most parts of Wales. Unfortunately, there have been setbacks. The industrialisation of South Wales brought many English speakers into the valleys, and the commercialisation of the North Coast also threatened the language.

Welsh children begin school at the age of 4.5 and for three years almost everything is done through the medium of Welsh, although many of the children do begin to read English also at about six years of age.

The main problems of Welsh are on the one hand the mixed quality of colloquial speech - the mass media bombard the Welsh speakers with English words and phrases - and on the other hand the difficulty of making Welsh a language of modern life, a problem which is closely linked with the whole psychology of adolescence.

A policy of encouragement for bilingualism in Welsh education has existed throughout this century in most of Wales. The result has been that for many years the majority of English speaking children in Wales have been taught some Welsh in the primary schools and in the first two years of the secondary schools.

In the last twenty years a number of attempts have been made to increase the success of second language teaching: new audio-visual courses, second language magazines, language camps, the bilingual school movement, and the Schools Council 1971-75 Development Project, to mention a few of them.

Most Welsh children learn English calmly and easily. The mass media and the wealth of English books ensure this progress. But, of course, at the age of nine the accent and intonation are heavily Welsh in rural schools."

11.30 a.m. Plenary session XII

Lecture on "Objectives and evaluation" by Mr. Eric HAWKINS (summary):

"A number of colleges of education in the United Kingdom have started (or are starting) 'linking courses', designed to help the future teacher to link his teaching of the foreign language with his teaching of the mother tongue.

Verbal ability correlates with ability across the curriculum as a whole, but also with social class and parental occupation. The language teacher is therefore dealing with possibly the most sensitive of all areas of the school curriculum.

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Acquiring the mother tongue is learning to match the concepts of the real world with the accurate linguistic categories. It means, at the same time, acquiring a learning capability. The matching is refined in the process of a one-to-one dialogue with an adult who possesses the language. But the adult must not only have the language, he must also know the concepts. With a good adult informant the acquisition will be effective, with a bad informant the acquisition of the mother tongue will be less effective. For children who have lacked 'adult time', the one-to-one dialogue must be provided at a new type of nursery school, from the age of three or four.

Syntax enables us to group our categories; prepositions and adjectives in space, the verb system along an axis of time, etc. Thus syntax is simply another aspect of the categorising of linguistic events and the real world.

Learning a foreign language can never be a repetition of the process of learning the mother tongue. Once the concepts and matches are formed, we cannot pretend they do not exist: we carry over to the second language our conceptualisation of the universe. To learn a foreign language, then, is to learn the concepts to which the words and structures belong in that language.

Clearly the strategies we use in approaching a foreign language vary from situation to situation, from task to task. Learning by association and learning by insight into a pattern reinforce each other constantly.

The learner should be introduced to and also evaluated according to language in use. A profile examination would appear to take into account the fact that language is not a monolithic thing.

There is a critical age for second language learning only as far as phonology is concerned - but motivation is absolutely crucial for adult learners.

Other important factors affecting the success in learning a second language are the effectiveness of the short-term memory, which appears to vary enormously from one individual to another, and the opportunity to work by one-to-one dialogue.

We should get away from the concept of education as being something we grab for ourselves or as being rather like a long distance race. Instead, it should be thought of as rock climbing: we work together in teams and we need each others' assistance."

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2.30 p.m. Group work, session III

Drafting of Group reports.

Saturday, 16 December

9 a.m. Plenary session XIII

(a) Presentation of Group reports

The reports will be found in Chapter 4.

(b) Adoption of recommendations.

The conclusions and recommendations of the Symposium will be found in Chapter 5.

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3. SUMMARY OF PLENARY DISCUSSIONS

Mother tongue learning and mother tongue teaching

Learning the mother tongue is the most important intellectual step the child ever takes. By and large, the strategy used is a one-to-one dialogue with an adult (who possesses the language) during which the child defines his syntax and his concepts. Unfortunately, all adults are not equally suitable as dialogue partners.

An important part of the formation of concepts and language takes place at school. Some of the difficult problems of mother tongue teaching appear to arise out of the fact that children come to school equipped with various sub-codes and that they will learn new ones at school. There is not only the difference between the grammars of spoken and written language to consider, but also the diverse spoken forms, sociolects and dialects.

The function of language must be central to all mother tongue teaching. Teaching should proceed from function, e.g. social function, to linguistic structure rather than the other way round. The child must learn the effectiveness of language: the effect his utterances have on other people, and vice-versa. But mother tongue teaching will also have to recognise the fact that the mother tongue constitutes the tool for acquiring knowledge in other subjects.

When written language materials are used they should preferably be of a kind that appears relevant to the pupil and makes it possible for him to identify himself with the content.

If formal knowledge is introduced, it ought to be for the sole purpose of supporting insight into and exploitation of the functional aspect of language.

Learning and teaching other languages

The problems connected with learning a foreign language vary a great deal, mainly due to factors such as the learner's age, his motivation, his verbal ability, etc. In principle it would be best to start learning a second language at a very early age, perhaps even partly parallel with the mother tongue. There is no reliable evidence to show that the possession of several languages at, say, pre-school age could be harmful in any way, at least not to the normal child.

Language learning strategies that very young children will employ probably differ from the strategies employed by grown-ups and adolescents. Where, exactly, the borderline

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between the youngest learners and the rest goes, and what precisely the differences in strategy are, is yet to be found out. It looks as though age alone would not in fact provide any such borderlines. One difference in learning strategy appears to be that the younger the learner, the more likely it is that he learns from surface structure, whereas cognitively more mature individuals profit increasingly from insights into the deep structure of the language.

Motivation is an ever interesting and vitally important factor in foreign language learning. Comparatively little is known about the relative strength of the various factors in the learning situation which we have regarded as motivating. We only know, for instance, that a foreign nurse and a kindergarten will provide sufficient or even strong motivation, and that the promise of contact with the target culture and target language people has a motivating effect. But we do not know how such factors compare with, for example, the "freedom-of-choice" factor: pupils appear to be more motivated to learn a foreign language which is not compulsory but which they have picked out for themselves. Neither do we know the exact relationship between motivation and language learning ability.

Achievement in a second language has been shown to correlate well with the ability to discover grammatical patterns in a linguistic material. This ability is presumably closely related to general verbal intelligence.

There are comparatively few language learning situations where a purely "explicit" or a purely "implicit" methodology would be feasible. Mostly some kind of compromise between the two is sought. Any method will of course have to be adapted to the age and the cognitive level of the pupils.

It is possible to banish the mother tongue from the classroom but it cannot be banished from the pupils' minds. The method of giving the mother tongue equivalent of a word in the foreign language may be debatable, but there is no doubt that it is time-saving.

The presence in many European countries of groups of adults and children whose mother tongue is taught as a foreign language in the schools of the host country might well prove a useful aid for developing teaching in that language.

Correctness and norm have often been unduly stressed in foreign language teaching materials, which accordingly lead the learner to use a language which is "superstandard" to the average native speaker of the target language. Typically, natives often judge errors quite differently from non-natives (i.e. teachers).

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Language teaching differs from other subjects in the school curriculum in several respects. It has to consider the aims and needs of both the individual and of society, as well as the degree of proficiency which each individual should reach. It also has to consider the social, linguistic and cultural background of each pupil, and his learning ability and motivation. Language teaching can take all these factors into account only if the large groups of pupils can be divided up into fairly small but homogeneous study groups.

Connections and differences between learning and teaching the mother tongue and other languages respectively

It can be argued that the overall motivation for learning the mother tongue must necessarily be different in kind from the motivation for learning any second language. However, some conceptualisation and restructuring will always take place when learning a foreign language. At best, then, foreign language learning is motivated by a wish to cope with a given context of situation.

Normally, the conditions of learning the mother tongue and of learning any other language are so different as to make them seem almost incomparable. The time factor is chiefly responsible for this: mother tongue learning is given plenty of time, the learning of a foreign language is not; mother tongue learning takes place from the very beginning of a child's life, the learning of a foreign language starts considerably later.

The fact that the learner already possesses one language has to be given due attention. The attitude towards the mother tongue as a mere source of interference has been replaced by the view that the mother tongue is a valuable aid to second language learning. The use - and usefulness - of language will already be familiar to the learner: the fact that language is an instrument of communication as well as a means of expressing personal opinion and passing judgment.

When it comes to teaching the mother tongue and other modern languages, there is one particularly important thesis in modern linguistics. A linguistic model, such as the generative model, which looks for elements common to all languages, permits us to draw the conclusion that one of the central objectives of mother tongue teaching is to make the pupils discover the general properties of language. At best, mother tongue teaching will concentrate on observation and discovery by the pupil of the structure and function of language in general, which probably facilitates the learning of a foreign language. At the same time the pupil gains insight into a most important aspect of human existence: linguistic activity.

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It is sometimes argued that linguistic models may even cause damage to teaching: they are applied to teaching but are later proved wrong or unsatisfactory and discarded. Teachers should therefore, it is said, remain sceptic to new theories until they have been proved correct. Linguistics is, however, in a state of crisis today, and it is hardly likely that the last word will have been said for a long time yet.

One present deficiency, which is particularly relevant to language teaching is that linguists have so far concerned themselves mainly with the grammar of the isolated clause, though we know that all or most sentences depend on context, linguistic and/or non-linguistic.

Nevertheless, it can be shown that every serious linguistic theory which has been applied has also contributed to the development of language teaching. It is both necessary and worth while to follow up any new linguistic insights by applying them in teaching.

A lot of tentative and experimental work is going on at the moment to employ new methods in mother tongue teaching, largely along the above-mentioned lines. Similar work is being done in foreign language teaching, but unfortunately these probjects and trends have mostly been isolated from each other. The same can be said about applied linguistic research in these two areas.

Teacher training

It is important that language students, teacher candidates and young teachers get acquainted with the theses of the current linguistic theories. They are the persons who can eventually bridge the gap between research and teaching.

Under training, mother tongue teachers should be acquainted with child language in the form of analyses and in particular in face to face situations and from tape recordings.

Once teachers in service have learnt the language of linguists they must receive continuous information on linguistic research and theories. Teachers could then be encouraged to form teams which would be capable of testing out the new findings of linguists or psycholinguists.

Bilingualism

Bilingualism is a complicated and multidimensional concept which can refer to various linguistic properties of an individual, a group or even a country. Some aspects of bilingualism are particularly relevant to language teaching. Thus switching from a dialect to a standard form can be regarded as a kind of bilingualism.

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It is hardly possible nor even necessary to define exactly how different two codes have to be in order for the speaker to be bilingual, nor to define how much or what aspects of both or either language he must possess. To become truly bilingual, in the strictest sense of complete communicative and expressive mastery of both languages, a child must learn and use both languages at an early age.

Presumably the only case in which bilingualism might be harmful to a child is that of double semi-lingualism, where neither language has developed normally.

Linguistic problems of minorities

The conditions of linguistic minorities in Europe vary immensely. It would, in fact, be fair to say that no two minorities are quite comparable, due to historical, political, social, economic and linguistic diversity. Certain general observations can, however, be made.

It should be considered everyone's right to receive at least primary education in his mother tongue. Children whose parents do not speak the language of the environment may give the impression of fluency in the language, but it must be remembered that the language of the playground is far from enought to start even primary education with. This is one reason why it is quite dubious to try to integrate for example immigrant children too rapidly into the host country school system. These children may become linguistically handicapped and their general education most likely suffers from it. Minority language children who receive all instruction in a language which is not their mother tongue are faced with a twofold difficulty: they have to learn a new culture as well as a new language.

It was pointed out that immigrant parents should be encouraged to speak their own language with their children, for both social and educational reasons.

Language teaching for guest workers constitutes an interesting but sensitive question which is not just a linguistic one. The motivation for learning the host language varies immensely. One factor of primary importance, which is not always remembered is the attitude of the natives of the host country. It is obvious that a negative attitude will make the learning of the host language much less attractive or may even make it loathsome.

It appears that those migrants who plan to return home at the earliest possible convenience prefer to earn more money instead of learning a new language. For these workers

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some kind of reduced courses in the host language might be offered as a first aid. If guest workers live together in their own communities they also tend to show little interest in the host language. If guest workers live isolated from their countrymen they appear to have a stronger motivation for learning the language of the environment.

Information on CCC work

The dissemination of information on CCC work was discussed on several occasions. The general feeling was that improvement should be made, not least because much of the CCC work on, for example, modern language teaching is very valuable. All available channels, including teachers' organisations, should be used to the fullest extent possible, in the dissemination of information of this kind.

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4. GROUP REPORTS

The delegates formed three working groups: Group A (English), Group B (French) and Group C (mixed). Each Group was given a list containing a number of questions intended to start off the working groups. The list had been prepared by the Finnish Organising Committee.

It was decided that one central question would be common for all groups, and two additional questions were selected for each Group. The Groups were asked to report on matters closely related to these questions. If time allowed, Groups were free to discuss other matters as well.

Groups were urged to try to formulate concrete recommendations suggesting well-defined areas of research or administrative measures.

Report of Group A

Questions:

(i) Are there sufficient contacts between theoretical linguists, those doing research into applied linguistics, and those actively engaged in teaching the mother tongue and foreign languages?

If not, how could such contacts be improved?

(ii) To what extent, and how, do mother tongue teachers co-ordinate their work with that foreign language teaching to which their pupils are exposed at the same time?

To what extent do foreign language teachers build on the work done in mother tongue subjects?

Is the co-ordination adequate?

If not, how could it be improved?

(iii) What aspects of different linguistic models are applicable if one wishes to improve the co-ordination between the learning and teaching of the mother tongue and that of other modern languages?

Should linguistic models be chosen and applied with this co-ordination in mind?

What consequences does this have for the role of the mother tongue in foreign language teaching?

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"The Group thinks that a major objective in the study of the mother tongue is the discovery by the child of the fundamental nature of language as an important element in his development. Part of the initial training of teachers of the mother tongue and of foreign languages should be a course in general linguistics. It is particularly recommended that teachers of language should receive basic training in the linguistic analysis of their own native language. The aim of this training would be to lead them towards the discovery of the principles governing their native language and of language in general. In-service courses of a similar type should also be made available.

It was generally agreed that there is not sufficient contact between theoretical linguists and those doing research into applied linguistics on the one hand and those actively engaged in teaching languages on the other. It was felt that the lack of contact may be less marked where the teaching of foreign languages is concerned. A vicious circle prevents co-operation between both sides at present: teachers of languages needed an initiation into the theory of linguistics in order to be able to formulate questions for the consideration of the theoretical linguists and the latter seemed to lack an appreciation of, or an interest in, the facts of the classroom situation. The unsatisfactory nature of the situation was compounded by an enormous scarcity of trained linguists.

There is a need for an intermediary who could facilitate contact between theoreticians and practitioners. This intermediary should be well acquainted with practical language teaching at different levels, well versed in the theory and practice of language teaching methods, well qualified in general linguistics and in the linguistics of the languages concerned. These functions might be performed by an individual or by an interdisciplinary team or institution.

Schemes for the creation of new language teaching materials were considered to be urgently needed and should be officially encouraged. The theoretical basis and the practical use of new materials should be adequately explained to their users. Furthermore, it was stressed that the continuous and inevitable development of the linguistic sciences requires constant refresher study on the part of the language teachers.

A majority of countries represented in the group have foreign language teaching from the primary stage onwards. In some countries the same teacher teaches both the mother tongue and a foreign language in the early stages. There was evidence of some connection between the teaching of the mother tongue and of foreign languages in a few instances but this was thought to be far from adequate.

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The Group agreed that the contribution of the linguistic sciences to the teaching of languages should be maximised. But it will remain the essential role of the teacher to present the mother tongue and the foreign language in a lively and stimulating manner. A valuable part could be played by the mother tongue teacher in making pupils sensitive to languages other than the mother tongue and this feeling for the nature and working of languages other than the mother tongue would yield a very important bonus by motivating the mother tongue learner and making the mother tongue more exciting. This discovering of how both the mother tongue and other languages function would be facilitated by help and advice from specialists in linguistics and particularly psycholinguistics, as well as by co-operation between teachers of the mother tongue and of foreign languages. The adaptation to the learner's needs and interests of the lexical and grammatical content of courses would seem to offer an obvious challenge to specialists in linguistics who might also investigate possible parallels between the content of the mother tongue and of foreign language courses.

Both teachers and linguists in the Group considered it unwise in the present circumstances to make exclusive use of one particular linguistic model for teaching purposes. Teachers should be capable of utilising in an eclectic way the various models available so as to help their pupils to become aware of the language they use and to solve their particular problems in using the language.

In order to ensure that teaching materials and textbooks are permanently up to date, they should be produced in such a practical and expendable form that their replacement would create no undue financial problems.

Report of Group B

Questions:

(i) Same as Group A, Question (i).

(ii) What evidence, if any, is available to prove that
(a) the teaching of a foreign language and/or
(b) teaching non-linguistic subjects in a language other than the mother tongue of the pupil might harm the child's native language skills at definite stages of the child's development?

If such evidence exists, what conclusions does it justify?

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(iii) How can the learner be encouraged to express himself freely and creatively, orally and in writing, in a foreign language, within the limits of his knowledge of the language?

Should one compromise between two objectives, linguistic correctness and a creative use of language?

If so, what criteria should determine the nature of the compromise in different teaching situations?

(i) "The replies to the CCC questionnaire indicate that the contacts between linguists and teachers are still insufficient, in spite of recommendations by previous symposia. Among the reasons to explain this insufficiency of contact, the following should be mentioned:

- the attitude of the linguists whose research is not oriented towards an eventual application in teaching;

- the confusion as regards the exact meaning of the word 'applied linguistics': on the one hand it should be stated for what purpose linguistics is applied (for example, the applications of linguistics to machine translation do not concern teaching), on the other hand one should only apply linguistics where it is applicable;

- teachers who are absorbed by their teaching tasks can devote only very little time to keep up to date in linguistic theory;

- the specialised language of linguists such as it is employed at conferences and in certain periodicals is not always accessible to the common teacher.

What solutions can be suggested?

- Those responsible for the training of teachers in service (inspectors, pedagogic advisers, authors of manuals, teachers in various teacher training establishments, etc.) must serve as mediators between the linguists and the teachers. In particular, they should adapt the various reports on the teaching of languages, published by the Council, so that their conclusions could be directly applied by the teachers in service.

- But above all it is in the course of their initial training that future teachers should become aware of and susceptible to linguistic theories and to their applications so that their teaching of the mother tongue and of other languages is up to date and so that they profit more from the compulsory in-service training. In this field the training schools and the pedagogical institutes have a capital role to play.

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- If the researcher in general linguistics does not need pedagogical training, this must at least be demanded of specialists in applied linguistics to ensure the contact with teaching so that the research is oriented towards the reality of the classroom.

- Some realisations are quoted as examples: the linguistic centres attached to universities (of the language centre type), the linguistic option for secondary teachers of English in France, courses in linguistics meant for teachers in service which are broadcast by television (in France and in Germany), the training offered by several university departments in linguistics where the teachers then challenge the teaching of their colleagues (Belgium and Scotland, for instance).

The Group has gone into the question of the nature of the linguistic training necessary for mother tongue teachers and foreign language teachers and into the types of relations which these two categories of teachers should establish between them.

In order to avoid any confusion caused by the term 'linguistics', it was agreed to distinguish between general linguistics which concerns itself with the general characteristics of language, the linguistics of the taught languages which suggests different types of analyses and descriptions of these languages, and finally the applications of linguistics to the teaching of these languages.

Training in general linguistics is essential for teachers in order to make them conscious of the whole nature of language, and in order to explain the various theories which are applied in the teaching of the mother tongue as well as in the teaching of other languages.

This consciousness is facilitated by linguistic studies (analyses, descriptions, functions) of foreign languages and of the mother tongue, both for mother tongue teachers and for foreign language teachers. Knowledge of the mother tongue system of the pupils is particularly recommendable for teachers who teach their language to foreigners, either in their native country or abroad (co-operators, assistants, migrant teachers, bilingual or multinational establishments).

The consequences of this linguistic training should be felt at school level.

The co-ordination between mother tongue teachers and foreign language teachers will be facilitated by their common training in the field of linguistics and their common

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background will be reflected in a harmonisation at the level of programmes and at the level of their pedagogical strategies, which are based on common pedagogical principles.

The authors of mother tongue and foreign language manuals should keep up with the new requirements of teachers and make use of their capacity to judge whether the contents of manuals are based on sound linguistic principles.

At an early stage pupils should make it a habit to ask about the nature and the function of language, both about their mother tongue and about any foreign languages they study.

(ii) It was agreed to distinguish between natural and artificial situations and to consider the very diverse conditions in each category, and to analyse the different factors which influence each case.

To the first category, for instance, belong linguistic minorities who learn an official language which is not their mother tongue, and the migrants who have to study the language of the host country.

To the second category belong the traditional foreign language classes and those establishments where certain subjects are taught in a foreign language (European schools, bilingual sections of Franco-German lycées, etc.).

In the natural situation the teaching of the official language or of the language of the host country will be detrimental to the mother tongue if there is no proper mother tongue teaching, or if the mother tongue is experienced as a language of inferior quality by the child. The school must pay due attention to psychological and cultural changes in the child which a total rupture with the mother tongue may affect. In the framework of its policy to develop foreign language teaching the host country could profit from the presence of foreigners whose language is taught in the schools.

Research and enquiries into the problems concerning migrant children should be multiplied with a view to elaborate specific pedagogics (for instance, adaptation classes which would precede an ultimate integration). The experiences reported by various member countries are often accidental and insufficiently controlled.

In the artifical situation, the study of foreign languages is beneficial for the mother tongue if the teachers base their teaching on common linguistic principles.

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Various views were expressed as to the use of a foreign language in the teaching of other subjects: some subjects are better suited than others to be taught in a foreign language, for instance those which only demand a contribution of information from the teacher, like physical culture. The use of a foreign language must not be introduced until the pupil has a solid basis in the language, which presupposes an intensive course before it can be used as the language of instruction.

It might be difficult to provide active participation by a foreign child in the class, but this would certainly develop comprehension.

Pupils who have already received training in their mother tongue in some subject constitute a particular problem: will the change to a foreign language hamper their progress in this subject or in the mother tongue? The result depends on the level reached in the mother tongue learning process. The proportion of foreign pupils in a class is another important factor.

(iii)Among the faculties required to make the pupil able to express himself freely, the aptitude to transfer plays a most important part. The teaching will have to develop it and make it function by successive steps, fragmentary exploitation of the contents of a lesson, fixation and extensive exploitation by re-using what the pupil has just learnt in new situations.

Motivation plays an important part, in particular the pupils' need to express themselves. Therefore the opportunities for the pupils to meet with natural communication situations should be multiplied (foreign language assistants, travels to the foreign country, etc.).

Noticeable differences between pupils from different environments have been recorded. Spontaneity in a foreign language appears to be more difficult to obtain for pupils who even find it difficult to express themselves in their mother tongue (urban milieu contra rural milieu, socio-cultural differences).

After a period of observation certain pupils who meet with difficulties should be directed to teaching, oriented towards developing comprehension, which requires a specific methodology.

The research on the level of exactness and correctness should be a function of the fixed objective of the foreign language programme and of the proper needs and aptitude of each pupil. A systematic perfectionism is an obstacle to

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creativity and spontaneity. The progress in creativity is also a function of the correctness and the precision. The pedagogic material at the teacher's disposal ought to permit him to work with level grouping and according to a differentiated pedagogics.

The compromise between creativity and correctness must not result in a laxity which could be prejudicial to the educational objectives of the teaching."

Report of Group C

Questions:

(i) Same as Group A, Question (i).

(ii) What are the differences in linguistic status between various types of permanent minorities, and various types of transitory minorities, such as guest labour?

How do these differences affect language teaching?

What can be done to adapt language teaching to each situation?

(iii) In what different ways has bilingualism been defined?

What criteria of bilingualism are particularly relevant to the analysis and description of different kinds of teaching situations?

(i) "At present there is not sufficient contact between theoretical linguists, applied linguists and teachers, but such contacts are desirable. The teachers could make an important contribution by doing research in the classroom. In Sweden, attempts to establish such contacts have been at least partly successful: after a period of direct method (influenced by Bloomfield and Skinner), Malmberg has succeeded in creating an annual contact between teachers and researchers.

An incomprehensible vocabulary makes it next to impossible to retrain (or in-service train) teachers of the mother tongue or of foreign languages, in the field of linguistics.

There is not only a lack of contact - there is in fact a big gap between theory and practice. A two-way communication is more than desirable.

To make it possible for the two groups - teachers and researchers - to approach each other, it was suggested that teachers should have paid leave from their schools (every 7

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years, every 5 years, for a month, for one school year, etc.) because under normal conditions they will not find the time to devote themselves to research in the classroom or to the linguistic sciences.

It will be possible to demand:

- the elaboration of new materials;
- the elaboration of new methods of testing;
- the foundation of pedagogic workshops;
- the establishment of the same types of contacts between countries as in countries;
- the creation of research posts in the schools (secondary schools, etc.)

(ii) Millions of people in Europe have to cope with a bilingual situation either because they are citizens of a bilingual country or because they have emigrated (permanently or not) to another country as guest workers. In the former case they may belong either to a linguistic majority or to a minority. As a rule the problems are fewer for those belonging to a linguistic majority. The question is usually quite different with minorities. It should be considered the duty of every country to provide the pedagogic means to these groups of people to help them to solve the language problems arising from their particular situation, with due respect for their mother tongue.

Opportunities should be created for adult guest workers to learn those elements of the language of the host country that will permit them to integrate themselves as far as necessary into the social and economic life of the host country. The degree of thoroughness of this language initiation must be based on the real needs of the guest worker (permanent or transitory stay in the host country, for instance).

Specially great care should be taken when it comes to the education of children belonging to a linguistic minority. Many cases have been described in which children were educated bilingually from the beginning without apparent harm. In these cases, however, a number of ideal conditions were present, usually lacking in linguistic minorities. These children were carefully put into contact with two different languages, spoken by their parents on the principle 'one person, one language', etc. As a rule it may be accepted that the child living in a linguistic minority should receive instruction mainly in his mother tongue until he has reached a sufficient level of abstract language. This should be provided for, wherever groups of a reasonable size exist.

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Courses in the mother tongue should preferably be entrusted to teachers speaking the same mother tongue, wherever this is possible. It may be added that, in minority groups, learning in the mother tongue gives the children that amount of group identity which is necessary for the harmonious development of their abilities.

(iii)Starting point: bilingualism is (a) to know how to behave perfectly in the two languages, and (b) to know how to (to be able to) express oneself somehow in the second language).

When it comes to defining bilingualism, some quite serious difficulties arise:

- the definition has no relevance;
- it is impossible to give an exhaustive definition; it is important to stress the purpose of the definition (or the use of it);
- the possibility of effective communication in the two languages;
- a difference exists between compound languages and co-ordinated languages.

After long discussions the Group agreed on a purely functional definition. The following criteria were found: age, motivation, and environment.

Is the concept of bilingualism useful at all? The Group answers 'yes, for linguistic but also for sociological and emotional reasons'.

Bilingualism, then, is the ability to communicate and express onself efficiently by means of two languages. The degree of proficiency with which this ability is exercised may vary considerably, ranging, for instance, as regards communication, from receptive to creative bilingualism, etc. It depends to a large extent on the amount of time that can be devoted to the study of the second language and to the method used during the process of learning. The method and the learning material should be based on scientifically established linguistic principles. Due attention should be paid to such personal factors in the learner as social background, learning capability and above all, motivation. Moreover, the nature of the relationship between the mother tongue and the foreign language, and such external factors as the environment in which the learning takes place are apt to influence the result of that learning."

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5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE SYMPOSIUM

A. Connections between teaching the mother tongue and teaching other languages

The Symposium concluded that, from a pedagogical point of view and in the light of modern linguistic theories, the similarities between any two languages have to be considered far more important than the differences. The attempts to establish connections between the teaching of the mother tongue and the teaching of other modern languages have been far from adequate.

1. The Symposium recommends that one of the major objectives of both mother tongue teaching and foreign language teaching should be to make the pupils interested in the nature and function of the languages they learn.

2. The Symposium recommends that mother tongue teaching and foreign language teaching should both aim at developing the pupil's ability to transfer by increasing his motivation for free and original self-expression.

3. The Symposium recommends that teachers of the mother tongue and teachers of other modern languages should co-ordinate their teaching activities and that they should base their teaching on common linguistic principles.

4. The Symposium recommends that if a teacher is expected to deal with two subjects, encouragement be given to the combination of the mother tongue and one foreign language, as well as to the combination of two foreign languages.

5. The Symposium recommends that both mother tongue teaching and foreign language teaching should aim at a compromise between creative use and correctness, and that research should be encouraged to define the level of correctness correlating with the educational objectives of the teaching and with the proper needs and the aptitude of each pupil.

The Symposium concluded that too large and too heterogeneous teaching groups constitute two of the major drawbacks for language teaching in schools. For example, the creation of effective and natural communication situations in the classroom appears impossible or very difficult.

6. The Symposium recommends that language teaching should take place in groups of suitable sizes.

7. The Symposium recommends that teachers should have the possibility to split up classes or forms into groups that are more homogeneous with regard to learning capacity and to social and linguistic background.

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B. Language teaching materials

8. The Symposium recommends that teachers should be provided with language teaching materials which would allow them to work by level groups and according to differentiated pedagogics.

9. The Symposium recommends that there should be schemes for the creation of new language teaching materials and that they should be officially encouraged.

10. The Symposium recommends that, in order for teaching materials to be permanently up to date, they should be produced in such a practical and expendable form that their replacement would create no undue financial problems.

C. Linguistic minorities; mother tongue teaching

The Symposium concluded that millions of people in Europe live in a multilingual situation, either because they are citizens of a multilingual country, or because they have immigrated (permanently or not) to another country. It was considered the duty of every country to provide the pedagogic means for these groups of people to help them to solve the language problems arising from their particular situation, with due respect for their mother tongue.

11. The Symposium recommends that opportunities be created for adult guest workers to learn those elements of the language of the host country that enable them to integrate themselves into the social and economic life of the host country; the degree of thoroughness of this language initiation to be based on the real needs and wishes of the guest worker.

The Symposium concluded that specially great care should be taken in the education of children belonging to a linguistic minority. The acquisition of the mother tongue is a process which is crucial for the child's development of thought, ethics, emotion and self-awareness. The mother tongue is thus a central part of the child's social behaviour and will moreover constitute his main medium of learning. It was emphasised that learning in the mother tongue gives the child that amount of individual and group identity which is necessary for the harmonious development of his abilities. Special provision will be needed for this teaching, and the host country but also the country of origin should examine very carefully their mutual obligations.

12. The Symposium recommends that every child be given the opportunity to acquire the skills of reading and writing in the mother tongue, and that measures be taken to make this applicable to children of linguistic minorities.

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13. The Symposium recommends that mother tongue teaching for minority children should be entrusted to native speakers of the language.

14. The Symposium recommends that a major objective in the study of the mother tongue should be the discovery by the child of the fundamental nature of language as an element in his development.

15. The Symposium recommends that children belonging to a linguistic minority should receive instruction mainly in their mother tongue until they have reached a level where they can manipulate abstract concepts.

16. The Symposium recommends that, in such cases where a child is taught other subjects in a language which is not his mother tongue, schools should pay close attention to any negative psychological or cultural effects in the child which the rupture with the mother tongue may have.

17. The Symposium recommends that research and enquiries into the problems of immigrant children should be multiplied, with a view to elaborating specific pedagogic policies.

18. The Symposium recommends that the present experiences among member countries of the Council concerning instruction of migrant children should be made object for evaluation and control.

D. Contacts between linguists and teachers

The Symposium concluded that there ought to be more contact between theoretical linguists and those doing research into applied linguistics on the one hand, and those engaged in teaching languages on the other hand. The communication between theoreticians and practitioners must be a two-way communication.

Linguists should express themselves in a way that can be understood by the practising teacher. Researchers in applied linguistics must remain in close contact with the realities of teaching. Teachers should make an effort to keep in touch with scientific progress.

All those who assume some responsibility for the training and information of teachers (inspectors, educational advisers, authors of textbooks, teachers of methodology, etc.) play an important part where the opening up of the channels between linguists and teachers is concerned.

19. The Symposium recommends that the fields of application of the various linguistic theories and descriptions should be defined, and that the theories should be adapted to the needs of teachers at different levels.

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20. The Symposium recommends that a system be created which permits language teachers to have sabbatical years, or terms, or weeks, to enable them to keep in touch with progress in the linguistic sciences.

21. The Symposium recommends that it be prescribed for all those who assume some responsibility for the training and information of teachers that they are well versed in the theory and practice of language teaching and are well qualified in modern linguistics, so that they can act as intermediaries who facilitate contact between theoreticians and practitioners.

22. The Symposium recommends that special centres be created where teachers can obtain resources of all kinds, and where they can meet specialists in linguists and psychology and other teachers; these centres should control a system of teaching posts connected with pedagogic research.

E. Qualifications in general linguistics

The Symposium concluded that it is essential that part of the initial training of teachers of the mother tongue and of other languages consists of a course in general linguistics and in the linguistic analysis of the pupil's mother tongue.

The Symposium also concluded that the unsatisfactory communication between linguists and teachers is in part a consequence of the teachers' insufficient acquaintance with linguistic theories and their applicability. Teachers should be capable of using in an eclectic way the various linguistic models available so as to help their pupils to become aware of the language they use and to solve their particular problems in using the language.

23. The Symposium recommends that part of the initial training of mother tongue teachers and foreign language teachers should be a course in general linguistics.

24. The Symposium recommends that language teachers should receive training in the linguistic analysis of the pupils' native language.

25. The Symposium recommends that in-service courses should provide opportunities for teachers to keep in touch with developments in the linguistic sciences.

F. Information

26. The Symposium recommends that the recommendations of this Symposium be communicated to teachers of the mother tongue and of other languages in order to encourage the organisation of combined conferences of teachers of the mother tongue and teachers of foreign languages.

27. The Symposium recommends that all available channels, including teachers' organisations, should be used in the dissemination of information on CCC work on language learning and teaching to the fullest extent possible.

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A P P E N D I X I

WORKING PAPER

based on replies to questionnaire
DECS/EGT (72) 37 Revised

Replies

By 9 December 1972 correspondents in sixteen member countries had returned their questionnaires to the Rapporteur.

Due to an unfortunate administrative oversight, Section V had been omitted from the revised English version of the questionnaire. A corrigendum was sent out in early November.

Fourteen member countries in all replied to the whole questionnaire (including two replies to the draft version), and two countries replied to Sections I - IV only.

1. Curriculum planning for the mother tongue and for other modern languages

As a rule, language curricula are planned nationally. Regions, local authorities and individual schools (private schools in particular) are allowed more or less freedom within the recommended framework.

At present, comparatively few countries report a compulsory foreign language in the early stages of schooling (i.e. up to the ages of 10, 11 and 12). However, many experiments are being conducted to test the results of foreign language teaching at primary level.

In those countries that have more than one official language it is normal for children at primary level to learn the other official language (or one of the other official languages). Children who belong to a minority language group and who receive their basic schooling in their mother tongue will be taught the majority language.

A wide variety of criteria for choosing compulsory foreign languages were mentioned, the most usual ones being "historical and cultural tradition" and "the needs of society and of the individual". In multilingual countries "the needs of society" corresponds to learning the majority language, in the case of minority language speakers, for others it usually means learning English, French, or German, with a view to international contacts.

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Less than half of the countries base their decisions for choosing compulsory languages on explicit scientific appraisals of the linguistic needs of the communities. Few bibliographical indications were given.

English, French and German (in that order) are the most commonly chosen foreign languages at primary level. At secondary level the assortment is considerably larger: more than ten languages were mentioned.

The present tendency is to avoid streaming in mother tongue teaching. There is some difference of opinion as to the usefulness of streaming in foreign language teaching. Some streaming is effected by the mere fact that there are various types of schools at secondary level.

1.1. Connections between the teaching of the mother tongue and the teaching of other modern languages

The aims for language programmes at both primary and secondary level are normally defined by the official curricula.

At primary level, mother tongue curricula emphasise skills in communication: tuition should give the pupil an easy command of spoken and written language.

There is also general agreement that foreign language teaching at this level should be primarily oral at first and aim at fluent control of a comparatively limited number of structures. Reading and writing are introduced in subsequent stages. The language introduced should be selected with reference to usefulness and suitability to the pupils' age and interests. Thus, practical skills in communication have priority in the curricula but there appears to be wide variation in practice.

At secondary level, mother tongue curricula introduce formal grammar, literature and stylistic problems. It is often stressed that formal knowledge should have the explicit purpose of supporting the skills in communication.

The same pattern is seen in foreign language teaching, though here the emphasis on practical skills in communication is somewhat stronger and formal (literary) knowledge is introduced at a much later stage. Again, many teachers devote more time to formal grammar than is presupposed by curricula.

On the whole, educational authorities have considered it a necessary or at least useful measure to publish recommendations for methods of teaching the mother tongue and of teaching other modern languages. These recommendations are more or less detailed as to the applications of the suggested methodology.

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There appears to be very little systematic co-ordination between the methodology of teaching the mother tongue and that of teaching other modern languages. Some accidental co-ordination is effected by mother tongue teachers who also teach some other language (mostly at primary or lower secondary level); by the fact that certain mother tongue (linguistic) concepts are used in teaching other languages; and by the fact that the general aims are the same: practical skills in communication.

The current trend in curriculum development is to stress the function of language, to define aims and means more precisely and to leave formal knowledge and cultural background material to be introduced at a higher level.

Comparatively little research is pursued on the links between the teaching of the mother tongue and that of other modern languages. So far, most of the published reports have been linguistic contrastive studies.

2. Teacher training

Primary level teachers receive their educational training at teacher training institutions. Mother tongue methodology is part of the class teacher training. To qualify as a foreign language teacher, the class teacher must normally pursue specialisation studies which include some methodology.

Lower secondary level teachers either study at a teacher training institution and then specialise, or they take a specialised university degree and then receive educational training which takes from three or four weeks to two years.

Upper secondary teachers have a university degree plus some educational training.

Under training, language teachers often specialise in one language only. In countries where combinations of two or more languages occur, the mother tongue plus one other modern language is a slightly more common combination than two foreign languages. In recent years, a tendency to combine one language with general or applied linguistics has been encouraged.

There is hardly any explicit connection between the methodological training of mother tongue teachers and that of teachers of other modern languages, apart from their receiving the same general educational training.

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Teachers of foreign languages do not take special courses in the methodology of teaching the mother tongue. Their acquaintance with the description of the mother tongue can usually be derived from some course in general or applied linguistics.

An introductory course in linguistics is more often than not compulsory for students of foreign languages but is less common for mother tongue students. In some countries, in-service training includes an increasing element of general and applied linguistics.

There is no regular foreign language teacher training for mother tongue teachers who teach the majority language to minority language speakers.

3. Linguistic minorities

The questionnaire contained a number of questions pertaining to the linguistic conditions of two types of minorities: indigenous minorities on the one hand and migrant workers and immigrants on the other.

3.1. Indigenous minorities

Nine countries out of fourteen reported on indigenous minorities. In six of these countries one or several minority languages are recognised as "official" languages of the State.

It is quite common for minority language speakers to speak the majority language also. On the whole, minority language speakers only use their mother tongue among themselves. Majority language speakers may switch to a minority language for special commercial or social purposes.

If minority language speakers form their own communities or are sufficiently numerous in some community, they usually receive their basic schooling in their mother tongue. In some instances their mother tongue is used as a complement to tuition in the majority language. Dialect speakers do not appear to constitute any problem: they receive their basic schooling in the standard language.

Minority schools are often provided with special books and materials which are mostly planned in accordance with majority materials.

Indigenous minorities have either remained nearly constant in size or they have diminished. Those few changes in legislation, affecting the status of minority languages, which have taken place since World War II, have aimed at clarification: they have defined the status of the languages and the rights of the speakers.

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There appear to be comparatively few linguistic groups that are officially considered to be disadvantaged socially or economically, in relation to speakers of the standard form.

Research relating to the conditions of linguistic minorities is going on in various places.

3.2. Migrant workers and immigrants

Eight countries out of sixteen replied to the question on language teaching for migrant workers. As a rule, special language courses are provided for migrants on an optional basis.

Children of migrants often learn the official language by being assimilated into the school system of the host country.

The immigrant communities themselves and their embassies organise classes to give the children training in their mother tongue. In some instances, the host country provides mother tongue teaching or else the country of origin may set up schools for its subjects abroad.

In recent years, there has been a considerable inflow of migrant workers and immigrants to several member countries. The main linguistic groups of migrants appear to be Italians, Spaniards, Greeks, Turks and Yugoslavs and Finns plus various groups from outside Europe. The mother tongues of these migrant groups are not recognised in legislation, only occasionally in administrative practice but increasingly in teaching.

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A N N E X E II

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